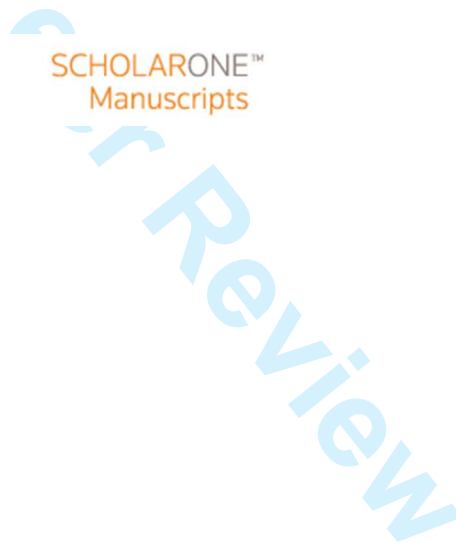




Here, there and everywhere : A study of consumer centrism

Journal:	<i>International Marketing Review</i>
Manuscript ID	IMR-06-2014-0205.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Cross-cultural studies, Ethnocentrism, Global marketing, Green issues, Market segmentation



“Here, there and everywhere”ⁱ: A study of consumer centrism

1. Introduction

The generalized concept of consumer centrism consists of three bases of identity, corresponding to ‘here’ (consumer ethnocentrism), ‘there’ (xenocentrism), and ‘everywhere’ (cosmopolitanism). The primary objective of this research is to cast a nomological net involving these consumer dispositions. No study to-date has integrated consumer social identities and self-categorizations with the total spectrum of ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism and xenocentrism. Knowledge of how these constructs interrelate and work together offers global marketers deep insights for designing appropriate marketing strategies. Another significant contribution of this paper is the profiling and clustering of multiple centrist types in the population.

2. Conceptual background

Identity may be defined as any category label to which a consumer self-associates either by choice or endowment (Reed, Forehand, Puntoni and Warlop 2012). Since identity reflects a person’s place within the social environment (Tajfel and Turner 1979) it can be represented at the national identity level through consumer xenocentrism, cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism. One facet of social identity is an individual’s motive to achieve a positive self-image by assimilating or accentuating similarities between themselves and a desirable reference group and by contrasting or accentuating differences between themselves and other reference groups considered negative (Tajfel 1981).

Thus, social categories are internalized into the self, and are self-defining, as well as self-evaluative. Consumer dispositions may be considered an example of depersonalization, whereby individuals define themselves through their social identities. In essence, social identity invites inter-group social comparisons. Social identity reflects a “we” mindset, while personal identity reflects an “I” mindset. The context, relevance and perceived status of domestic and foreign nations affect the favoritism or non-

favoritism of xenocentrism, cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism. Favoritism or non-favoritism is reflected in xenocentrism or ethnocentrism respectively. In the case of cosmopolitanism, favor is allocated on merit.

These consumer centrist-related personal and social identities differentially activate a nomothetic net of various identity levels and associated consumer or moral values domains. In the initial design of this study, a large number of consumer centrist outcome variables were screened and evaluated. These variables included consume animosity, national identification, cultural capital, risk-taking, susceptibility to normative influence, and the like. Given the welter of conceptual options, a broad conceptual system, shown in Figure 1, was developed that classified concepts by identity type (social or personal) and value classification (consumer or moral domains). This conceptual system was employed to test the final nomothetic net used in the present study. Variables selected for the nomothetic net have been theoretically and empirically linked in previous studies to property space representing significant outcomes of xenocentrism, cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism. The rationale for these linkages is given in the research hypotheses section of the paper. Use of this Figure 1 matrix illuminates the confluence of dependent variables to various multiple centrist orientations, supported by previous literature. These include negative relations between Global consumption Orientation and ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987), independent associations of materialism with cosmopolitanism (Cleveland et al 2009), positive associations of consciousness of kind with ethnocentrism (Cleveland et al 2011b); and positive associations of natural environmental concern with cosmopolitanism (Cannon and Yaprak 2009).

“Insert Figure 1 about here”

In Figure 1, social identities and consumer values define global consumption orientations (Quadrant 1). Personal identities and consumer values bracket materialism (Quadrant 2). Social identities and moral values situate consciousness of kind (Quadrant 3). Personal identities and moral values position natural environment concern (Quadrant 4). Thus, the social identity conceptual system provides a theoretical rationale for selection of variables that are modeled in this paper.

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Social identity theory applied to this research provides important consumer insights into the emergent belief, value and motivational structures associated with market segments. These insights are the foundation of creative and effective marketing strategies.

Inside Xen. Very little research specifically addresses xenocentrism (XEN), involving the tendency for a person to view their home culture as inferior, and to idealize other cultures (Batra et al., 2000; Belk 1982; Lawrence 2012; Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis 2010; Wallach 2002). XEN was first defined in direct contrast to ethnocentrism by Kent and Burnight (1951). According to these authors, xenocentrism involves assuming the perspective of a group other than one's own for making product judgments. With XEN, an outside group is perceived and evaluated with a positive bias, while the ingroup may or may not be disparaged or rejected (Perlmutter 1954). Whereas xenocentrism is traceable to social identity, empathy is an ingrained personality trait, independent of social identity—making these features distinct.

XEN can arise from a mind-set of cultural admiration of another society. Known as xenophilia, this condition is thought to be more prevalent among emerging-market consumers (Ger and Belk 1996a), e.g., the Anglophilia evidenced amongst Indians and other citizens of Commonwealth countries.

Feelings of marginalization from specified ingroups or cultural members within a society may also spur XEN predispositions. Marginalized people face a dilemma because of participation in different, distinct, conflicting social groups (Theodorson and Theodorson 1969). Such persons are not fully committed to the values and norms of their nation of residence. At the extreme, they may not feel accepted by their own national group. According to social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1986), a sense of exclusion from the community leads to frustration and possibly low self-esteem. Marginalized persons predisposed to XEN include émigrés and their progeny, individuals of low social position, and members of low status groups (Kent and Burnight 1951). It is also conceivable that XEN may be more evident for certain age or gender segments, owing to their perceptions of a generation gap, incompatible sex-role expectations, shifting social values, etc.

The affected party is motivated to reference outgroups when forming attitudes and taking action (Batra et al. 2000; Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis 2010). Overcompensation for latent ethnocentrism also has been suggested as an explanation for XEN, whereby the ethnocentric consumer endeavors to reflect ethnocentrism perceived as undesirable by supplanting it with the opposing trait (Cleveland and Laroche 2012). In such cases, individuals might display a sense of independence in their ideological rejection of their own mainstream culture.

Consumer ethnocentrism. The psychological construct of ethnocentrism was first defined by Sumner (1906), and it represents how individuals accept or reject others based on ingroup similarity vs. outgroup difference. In a marketing context, consumer ethnocentrism suggests that individuals become affectively involved with products as they relate to self-esteem and identity with their country (Druckman, 1994). In what has been referred to as a 'social identity' context, threats to social identity have been reported to spur ethnocentrism (Grant 1992; Grant and Brown 1995). In such cases, strongly ethnocentric consumers are motivated to preserve and promote their country's culture and economy; selecting home brands over foreign alternatives—even when these latter items represent a better value—so as to avoid commerce with national outgroups (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Alden et al. 2006).

The magnitude, causes and effects of CET have been found to be inconsistent across various countries and cultures (Good and Huddleston 1995; Netemeyer, Durvasula and Lichtenstein 1991; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995). Shankarmahesh (2006) suggests that patriotism, internationalism, and animosity are socio-psychological antecedents to CET—influencing product purchase intentions through the mediators of COO and other product attributes. Balabanis et al. (2001) examine the inconsistent impacts of patriotism and nationalism as antecedents to CET in two countries.

Previous CET studies have concentrated heavily on dispositions toward foreignness, with consistent findings that ethnocentrism is negatively associated with this particular outcome (see Appendix

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A: CET Studies of Dispositions toward Foreign Purchases). Many of these studies are not product specific since the aim was to test the generality of the CETSCALE as a generic tendency across a spectrum of products. This would suggest ethnocentrism is an underlying orientation or disposition. Shimp and Sharma (1987) and Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) developed the CET scale to popularize ethnocentrism. Similarly, Shimp and Sharma (1987: 281) defined ethnocentrism is a measure of tendency or set of beliefs that represent a general disposition to act in a consistent (adverse) way toward foreign products. Triandis (1994: 252) argued ethnocentrism was based on natural held beliefs to favor members of our in-group relative to out-groups, indicating an enduring characteristic. The present study is positioned to develop new insights concerning other CET outcomes in addition: consciousness of kind, materialism and natural environmental concern.

Consumer Cosmopolitanism. Distinguished from XEN is the concept of cosmopolitanism (COS). Kent and Burnight (1951) noted that individuals can be neither biased toward their own group nor biased toward another (foreign) group, but instead evaluate all groups on their merits. They termed these objective unbiased individuals ‘cultural relativists.’ In the literature, consumers displaying cultural objectivity are known as cosmopolitans. Since COS makes no reference to the superiority or inferiority of any nation or culture, COS differs from ethnocentrism and xenocentrism. Openness toward global culture or citizenship replaces any single country bias. According to Szerszynski and Urry (2002, p. 468), “cosmopolitanism involves the search for, and delight in, the contrasts between societies rather than a longing for superiority or for uniformity.”

Within the domain of marketing, COS has been variously described as an inherent personality trait, a value, and as an attitude (Thompson and Tambyah 1999). Herein, consumer cosmopolitanism is defined as a specific set of beliefs, attitudes and qualities that involve a conscious openness to the world and to cultural differences. It involves a willingness to engage with outsiders and a receptive openness to the world and to cultural differences. The cosmopolitan consumer also displays personal competence in understanding and interacting with alien cultures.

Distinct from the concept of xenocentrism—whereby the preference for the foreign culture negates preference for the homeland—the cosmopolitan consumer accepts and endorses the local cultural narrative, complementing it with outside cultural perspectives and values. In this sense, as opposed to being pulled towards (ethnocentric) or away from (xenocentric) the home/national culture, the cosmopolitan is at home everywhere. Cleveland et al. (2011b) found no evidence of an inverse relationship between ethnic identity and COS. These findings support an integrative or complementary pattern of cultural intersection, rather than one of assimilation (i.e., cultural substitution).

Both cosmopolitans and xenocentrics share common traits with regard to non-domestic products and, therefore, are expected to have a positive relationship. From a cosmopolitan perspective, product preference should be based on merit that may result in a local market choice (Merton 1957). This contrasts with a xenocentric perspective that is typically biased against the local market (Mueller et al. 2010).

3. Research hypotheses

Subjective beliefs involving consumer centrism's impact consumer attitudes and subsequent behaviors are often incorporated within firms' marketing practices. In this section we examine four such outcomes: (1) consciousness of kind, (2) global consumption orientation, (3) materialism, and (4) natural environment concern. These variables are considered outcomes, rather than drivers of consumer centrism dispositions. This is because each of these variables reflects social categorization processes associated with dimensions of consumer centrism, and is relatively malleable. Furthermore, to be an outcome of the general dispositions of ethnocentrism, xenocentrism or cosmopolitanism, variables needs to be relatively contextual and sensitive to situational influences. It follows that the more specific tendencies or orientations should follow rather than precede more generalizable or situationally invariant constructs (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980: 157-67). Finally, to qualify as an outcome, there must be a specific theoretical linkage between aspects of consumer centrism and these variables.

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Figure two is an overview that epitomizes the hypotheses which are discussed in this section. Testing of these hypotheses importantly advances knowledge of multiple centrism and generates future research in the area (see Multiple Centrism: A Spectrum of Future Research Initiatives at the conclusion of the paper).

Insert Figure 2 about here

Consciousness-of-Kind. A central constituent of identity consists of how one or more collectivities are incorporated into an individual’s self-concept. Consciousness-of-kind (CK) involves an attraction toward others based on perceptions of social similarity (or distance) conditioned by culture, in which a combination of social status, group membership and personality are key determinants (Abel 1930). CK is more recently defined as “the intrinsic connection that members feel toward one another, and the collective sense of difference from others not in the community” (Muñiz and O’Guinn 2001, p. 413); i.e., a palpable shared sense of belonging, of “we-ness” (p. 418). This sense of belonging is presumed to vary across nations, as a function of the respective roles of the individual vs. the group, and other factors (history, multiculturalism, etc.).

The need for ethnocentrics to seek security and comfort leads to seeking allegiance with those most familiar with them. Such dispositions, when expressed in the marketplace, follow from CET. Potentially the result of perceived marginalization from their local environment (Theodorsen and Theodorsen 1969), xenocentrics reflect an ambivalent state of tension between local and foreign values and customs, leading to blurred associations with CK. On the one hand, seeking reconciliation of marginalization within society, xenocentrics may adhere to types considered similar in status to themselves, creating solidarity. On the other hand, if they seek out groups of higher status to themselves, social acceptance might be challenged, leading to further marginalization and lack of solidarity. Findings from Cleveland and colleagues (2011b) are consistent with the integration of a national or localized culture with an ecumenical identity associated with outward cultural

inquisitiveness (Berry 1997; Arnett 2002). This finding denies support for the notion that rising COS entails erosion of national/ethnic affiliation. Unlike the general appreciation for cultures inherent with COS, the outward affinity with the ‘other’ implicit within xenocentrism implicates a distancing from one’s home (e.g., national) culture. Moreover, based on conceptual analyses of CET and XEN, we posit that CK will be strongly and positively associated with the former and inversely connected to the latter.

H1: Consciousness-of-Kind is: positively related to CET (H1a), negatively related to XEN (H1b), and positively related to COS (H1c).

Global consumption orientation. Advances in marketplace globalization have increased the diversity of consumer behaviors within countries, which may reactivate ethnic or national tendencies (Ger 1999), whilst stretching similarities among consumers across countries into emergent global consumer cultures (Cleveland and Laroche 2007). Operationalized by Alden et al. (2006), global consumption orientation (GCO) consists of a series of measures designed to capture “...consumer attitudes towards consumption alternatives resulting from market globalization” (p. 227). In short, GCO can be considered a proclivity toward the acceptance of global versus local lifestyles.

Ethnocentrism reflects a predisposition of aversion toward global lifestyles, since foreignness is interpreted as risky to one’s social identity. Those consumers intent on preserving personal, local and national interests may feel threatened by the adverse impact of globalization. The dark side of globalization can bring with it insecurities, hostility, and deep resentment, such as perceptions of cultural imperialism, standardization leading to loss of local identity, and lack of personal control (Skrbis and Woodward 2007). Ethnocentric consumers tend to avoid buying foreign products, partly out of their belief that substituting foreign for local would be unethical and unpatriotic (Shimp and Sharma 1987).

Considering the acknowledged sources of xenocentrism, such as low self-esteem, and feelings of domestic rejection and hostility (Mueller et al. 2010), the greater transparency of cultural diversity

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from social media combined with improvements in global lifestyles and standards of living generally can shore up and magnify one’s own sense of marginalization. A consumer with xenocentric tendencies is likely to respond positively to global lifestyle values since looking outward functions as a distraction from looking inward in terms of making preferences and judgments. Xenocentrics may also wish to rebel from their parents or demonstrate independence and rationalize that global lifestyles harbor progressive and modern values (Mueller et al. 2010).

The world of the cosmopolitan is expansive, and s/he is more likely to consult international media to satisfy their need for contrast (Holt 1998). The ability and willingness of cosmopolitans to immerse in new cultures (Hannerz 1990), whether from physical travel, virtual travel, or by observation of global mass media facilitates the diffusion of global culture, and should lead them to display positive global values. Cosmopolitans are motivated in choosing the best global product on merit irrespective of country of origin, and so are likely to be proactive toward global consumer values and consumption lifestyles. However, as consumers’ acculturation for diversity peaks, a threshold for immersion in foreign cultures unfolds as they begin to experience diminishing returns from their exposure. This process encourages a more reflective and possibly introspective position in relation to their own culture. On balance, positive relationships to GCO are expected with XEN, but curvilinear relationships (starting positive, stabilizing, then becoming negative) with COS.

H2: Global Consumption Orientation is negatively related to CET (H2a), positively related to XEN (H2b) and curvilinear to COS (H2C).

Materialism. Embracing the symbolic quality of consumption, Shrum et al. (2013) urged researchers to adopt a functional outlook on materialism (MAT); which they explained as “the extent to which individuals attempt to engage in the construction and maintenance of the self through the acquisition and use of products, services, experiences, or relationships that are perceived to provide desirable symbolic value” (p. 1180). They delineated six motivations underlying MAT; three of which intertwine with social belonging. *Distinctiveness* involves consumption rituals that signify distinction from other

people (e.g., immigrants wearing traditional attire). *Belonging* is likewise driven by a need for attachment and approval by others, although this could extend towards the mainstream society (e.g., immigrants embracing a local sports team). *Continuity* denotes identity-maintenance activities over time and across circumstances (e.g., procuring items from native country, or retaining objects for nostalgia). All three identity formation varieties are "...fulfilled through *other signaling*" (Shrum et al. 2013, p. 1182), with the objectives of achieving social comparison or obtaining social approval.

Traditional sources of security such as family, community and religion are undergoing rapid change and becoming less influential for many (Edgell 2006). This may lead consumers to protect local values and interests as a means of responding to insecurity, reflecting ethnocentrism. A positive relationship with CET would support the conjecture that more nationalistic and parochially-inclined individuals are resisting materialistic tendencies. However, the expression or repression of MAT depends in part on its degree of harmony or discord with other values held by the individual (e.g., religiosity) and/or norms espoused by the salient social group (e.g., individualism, masculinity: Cleveland and Chang 2009). Ethnocentric consumers—even those complying with traditional norms—may yearn still for status-conveying objects. A materialistic passion is outer-directed (influenced by peers), valuing possessions for what they symbolize or express to others to boost esteem (Richins 1994). Sustaining their compatibility as behavioral predictors, Cleveland et al. (2009) reported non-significant MAT-CET links in most of countries surveyed.

Xenocentrism is reflective of a general outward culture admiration and specifically, the consumer products associated with this foreign or global entity. XEN as a source of foreign product bias can be attributed, in part, to the associated status conferred by foreign products (Mueller et al. 2010). Cosmopolitans are motivated less by conspicuous consumption and more by authenticity in their mixed preferences for foreign and local products. In their international research, Cleveland and colleagues (2009) hypothesized an independent MAT-COS relationship.

H3: Materialism shares no relationship with CET (H3a), is positively related to XEN (H3b), and shares no relationship to COS (H3c).

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Natural environment concern. According to Weigert (1997) an environmental identity is an experienced social understanding of who we are in relation to how we interact with our natural environment. Natural environment concern (NEC) is defined as the degree to which individuals value, and hence are protective toward, their natural environment. This concern manifests along a range of attitudes, beliefs, knowledge and behaviors, including environmental activism, environmentally-friendly buyer behavior, economic factors, environmental knowledge, as well as environmental skepticism (about claims) (do Paço, Raposo and Filho 2009; Gordon, Carrigan and Hastings 2011).

On the one hand, ethnocentric consumers are expected to be negatively associated toward NEC, since environmentalism requires behavioral change that threatens their conservative predispositions. On the other hand, they may engage in acquiring environmental knowledge as a means of protecting their local business community (e.g., in encouraging consumers to buy local), and in securing domestic jobs. The net effect may lead to a non-significant relationship between NEC and CET.

Cosmopolitans, through their high levels of formal and informal education and diversity of exposure to foreign cultures, expect to be kept informed about product standards and how they can be traced through their range of suppliers. This exposure brings sensitivity to world issues such as the global ecological environment, and leads to greater interest in environmentally friendly products (de Pelsmacker, Driesen and Rayp 2005). Drawing on the sociology of cosmopolitanism (Delanti 2006), cosmopolitans have aspirations of diversity and of recognition as citizens of the world (as noted by Cannon and Yaprak 2002). It follows that cosmopolitans cultivate a keen interest in the political, social, and economic tensions of the world that impact environmentally, leading to greater sensitivity to the fragility of their natural environment, relative to other groups.

Whereas cosmopolitans are interested in helping mankind (Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2007), the motives of xenocentrics are assumed to be more self-centered and rebellious. On the other hand, xenocentrics are also contrarian personalities: people who enjoy being different (Mueller et al. 2010).

To the extent they are attracted toward modernity and refute conservative values, they will savor new ways of thinking, and so should be more receptive to changes advocated to our consumption behavior that could help protect our environment. The self-centeredness of xenocentrism suggests a negative association whereas their acceptance of change suggests a positive association between XEN and NEC.

Although ethnocentric consumers are more apt "...to view their own group as the center of the universe" (Shimp and Sharma 1987, p. 280) and make purchasing decisions from this standpoint, it does not necessarily follow that they should automatically be prone to anthropocentrism. Drawing from Schwartz's (1999) cultural values theory, the underlying objective of 'mastery' is controlling the world whereas 'harmony' implies integrating oneself into the existing order (including natural environment). The latter is consistent with the cosmopolitan trait of cultural adaptiveness, whereas the domination of other peoples and resources is antithetical to COS (Cleveland and Laroche 2012).

H4: Natural Environment Concern shares no relationship with CET (H4a) nor to XEN (H4b), but is positively related to COS (H4c).

4. Methodology

4.1 The Sample

US respondents (n=269) consisted of a geographically disperse, nationally-representative sample from a national online panel created by a research organization (*Toluna Inc.*⁹). Panelists are pre-recruited online with rewards (redeemable for merchandise, gift cards or sweepstakes tickets), which subsequently generates a high response rate and permits the imposition of quotas to enable a demographically diffuse sample. Data collection in the UK was carried out in numerous locations within the following regions: London, the Home Counties (i.e., counties bordering but excluding London and others within southeast England, incorporating Hertfordshire, Kent, Essex), and in Yorkshire (the largest UK county, in northern England, taking in Leeds, Sheffield, Bradford, York) and environs (e.g., Newcastle, Manchester). Four interviewers personally approached potential respondents at pre-selected locations in all three regions, in shopping malls and urban shopping districts (i.e., high

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streets). On average three out of ten potential participants approached took part in the survey, resulting in 296 returns (273 usable).

The aggregate sample encompassed 542 respondents. Detailed sample characteristics are reported in Appendix B. Demographics consisted of sex (female=0, male=1), with ordinal coding for age, educational attainment and household income. Also measured were primary citizenship (1=US/UK, 0=other), country of birth and city/location of residence, and longest period of time that respondent had either lived, worked, or studied in another country (recoded: 1=have lived outside country [2 months or more], otherwise 0). Gender was roughly proportionate (even male/female split). Both samples were reasonably dispersed across age, income and education increments. Significant differences ($p \leq .05$) between the samples were found for age, citizenship, income and period of time spent living outside country. The American sample was 83% Caucasian; sourced from all 50 states roughly proportionate to the population. UK respondents hailed from 41 different cities, with the largest numbers from Leeds, London, Bradford, Ashford and Wakefield.

4.2 The Survey

The survey contained 45 items for the seven constructs. Following endorsements in procedures for data reduction by Alden et al. (2006), we retained items from prior studies representing original constructs that offered the highest factor loadings. Measures for CET draw from the four-item version of Shimp and Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE, which was validated by Klein (2002) and numerous studies since. The six measures for COS draw from the instrument developed by Cleveland and Laroche (2007); later validated in cross-cultural studies as well as numerous languages (see Cleveland et al. 2014). Xenocentrism consisted of an original scale, adapted obversely from items in the CETSCALE.

Operationally, the XEN scale reflected the concept defined by Lawrence (2012) as: "an individual's preference for the products or services of a society other than their own." This was tested by qualitative studies with students in the US and UK, involving focus groups. The qualitative studies, with 20 and 22 participants respectively in the US and UK, verified that the XEN concept used for scale construction was

mirrored definitions in the literature. Additionally, it indicated face validity between individual XEN scale items employed in this study and the global XEN concept. Finally, the qualitative research supported expected associations between XEN and the other two consumer centrist concepts and an underlying rationale consistent with the literature.

Psychological measurement in the study sample showed independence between XEN and CET. THE XEN scale was reduced to three items from seven that were initially developed, based on their unidimensionality, maximizing the Cronbach Alpha, intercorrelations of the reduced set of measures and item correlations with total scale scores. The latent mean scores for the two scale measures were uncorrelated. The XEN scale meets acceptable standards for scale reliability and nomological validity. Finally, the XEN scale employed meets acceptable standards of content validity in that it positively correlates with an alternative scale for the same domain (CXENO), which was rigorously developed (Lawrence 2012).

The operationalization of consciousness-of-kind (CK, 6 items) was inspired by qualitative and quantitative studies by Muñiz and O'Guinn (2001) and Madupu and Cooley (2010), respectively. The latter researchers applied a novel CK scale from the context of affiliation with a particular brand community. A supplemental item was taken from Woodward, Skrbis and Bean (2008). Assuming successful substantiation, these scales represent novel contributions, given the hitherto absence of techniques for gauging XEN and CK.

Materialism comprises seven items, drawn from the shorter material values scale (Richins 2004), which has enjoyed extensive adoption in the literature (e.g., Rindfleisch et al. 2009). Global consumption orientation consists of six items drawn from the GCO instrument (Alden et al. 2006; Steenkamp and de Jong 2010). Originally covering five product category domains, we adopt three measures from each of the lifestyle and entertainment subfacets. The scaling and wording of the GCO items was modified to fit with the context of our study (i.e., country/cultural descriptors).ⁱⁱ Measures for natural environmental concern (NEC) entailed distinctive environmental worldviews. Individuals

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may perceive their environment as a resource that can be taken for granted, reflecting unlimited consumption constraints at one extreme, to those others who view the environment as both interdependent with humans, precious and to be preserved; putting manifold constraints on consumption. Measures for NEC were adapted from Stets and Biga (2003), who examined how identity theory informs environmentally-responsible behaviors. Employing 7-point response options, the US survey incorporated 9 of the most relevant items. For the US survey, all other construct measures employed 5-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). The structure of the UK survey was similar, except that all constructs measured along 7-point Likert scales.^{vi} To ensure comparability of scale ratings, US and UK datasets were manually converted from five-point or seven-point scales to 10-point scales. The transformations were based on a simple tested arithmetic procedure Dawes (2008) whereby scale endpoints are anchored to the endpoints of a 10-point scale, and intermediate points are interpolated along the same 10-point scale. With more than 500 citations to date, the Dawes (2008) procedure is by far the most prominent approach to rescaling employed in the relevant social sciences literature. On the basis of an exhaustive scrutiny of the transformation effects of his method (relative to other conventional approaches) on relative means, variations about the mean, skewness and kurtosis, Dawes (2008, p. 61) concluded that “5 and 7-point scales can easily be rescaled with the resultant data being quite comparable.” This is a critical finding, given that confirmatory factor analyses and other structural equation modeling techniques are sensitive to characteristics of the data (Bentler 1995).

5. Data analyses and findings

5.1 SPSS Analyses

Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2_{946}=14735.29, p\leq.001$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy (.880) indicate that the pooled data was appropriate for EFA (also confirmed for each dataset) ^{iv} A series of EFAs (principal components, oblimin rotation) were conducted. The scree plot demarcated a break between 7-8 components. At each step, the most unstable item (i.e., mediocre loading or high cross-loading) was removed, and the analysis rerun. This process was repeated eleven

times. For the final execution the rotation converged in 8 iterations, incorporating 31 items in a seven-factor solution (eigenvalues >1.0) accounting for 72.76% of the total variance (Table 1). All factors yielded high internal consistencies (ranging $\alpha=.73-.95$, and AVE coefficients ranging .72-.90). Most factor loadings were > 0.7 , whereas two were < 0.6 (one each for MAT, GCO). For this analytical stage, constructs consisted of the mean of constitutive items for each respondent. The squared correlations between each construct ranged from a low of .00 (MAT-NEC) and a high of .18 (CET-CK), which are all well below the reported AVEs for each construct; thus satisfying the criterion for discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Levene's tests upheld the equality of variances between the two datasets for all constructs save for GCO. Independent samples t-tests reveal significant country-sample differences on four out of seven constructs. Americans (vs. British) scored substantially higher means on the two ingroup identity dispositions, namely CK ($M_{US}=8.07$, $M_{UK}=6.57$, $t=-9.62$, $p<.001$) and especially, CET ($M_{US}=6.11$, $M_{UK}=3.46$, $t=-13.86$, $p<.001$); whereas their British counterparts outsourced them on outward appreciation toward other cultures (COS: $M_{US}=7.33$, $M_{UK}=8.23$, $t=5.63$, $p<.001$) and even more so, towards the natural environment (NEC: $M_{US}=4.14$, $M_{UK}=6.56$, $t=14.02$, $p<.001$). Mean differences on XEN, MAT and GCO were not statistically significant.

“Insert Table 1 about here”

5.1.1 Construct inter-correlations—for the aggregated dataset—appear below the diagonal in the top half of Table 2. As expected for H1a, CET was positively correlated with consciousness-of-kind ($r=.43$). But support for H1b and H1c is lacking given non-significance of the XEN-CK link and the negative COS-CK correlation, which was contrary to what was postulated.

The CET-XEN correlation was negative but not significant ($r=-.05$), indicating that it is inappropriate to construe these constructs as opposites (especially given the non-significant CET-GCO correlation, contradicting H2a). Respondents scoring high on XEN exhibited a high global consumption orientation ($r=.4$), validating H2b. COS exhibited anticipated positive correlations with global consumption orientation ($r=.25$), supporting H2c. Although GCO is positively linked to COS

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(.27) the structured coefficient for UK is not significant at 0.14 in contrast to .41 for the US. Since we would expect a curvilinear relationship to average out positive and negative scores over a range of time, we might have anticipated a neutral relationship. On this basis only the UK sample appears to support H2c, with the overall result only offering partial support.

As postulated, materialism was not significantly linked to CET (H3a) or to COS (H3c). The relationship between XEN and MAT was positive ($r=.19$), validating H3b.

The CET-NEC correlation was significantly negative ($r=-.24$), whereas we had hypothesized in H4a that it would be nonsignificant. The anticipated non-significant linkages of NEC and XEN were confirmed (H4b). Natural environment concern is positively correlated to COS ($r=.10$), supporting H4c.

There was a strong inverse CET-COS association ($r=-.30$), corroborating the results reported by Cleveland et al. (2009) and Riefler, Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2011) based on their own cosmopolitan scale. Most of the remaining significant construct relationships were positively valenced. COS exhibited anticipated strong positive correlations with XEN ($r=.30$). As presumed, cosmopolitans were younger ($r=-.20$), highly educated ($r=.20$), and more apt to have lived for a period outside of the UK/US ($r=.19$). These results were the inverse of the findings for CET, whereby higher scores were associated with being older ($r=.32$), having lower education ($r=-.14$), higher income levels ($r=.13$), and being male ($r=.09$). However, lack of expatriate experience was not significantly correlated with CET. In addition to exhibiting COS tendencies and lower CET levels,

Xenocentrics tended to be younger ($r=-.12$) and more apt to have spent time living abroad ($r=.10$). In addition to being associated with XEN, materialism was positively linked to GCO ($r=.41$), and youth ($r=-.26$). Beyond the strong positive association with CET, consciousness-of-kind was positively related to age ($r=.31$), and income ($r=.18$); whereas CK was inversely linked to NEC ($r=-.20$), which is consistent with the finding of a negative association between CET and NEC. Along with the aforesaid positive linkages to COS, natural environment concern was negatively related to age ($r=-.21$). Females were apt to score higher on NEC ($r=.11$). Finally, as mentioned, GCO linked

positively with 3 constructs (COS, XEN, and MAT) as well as to income ($r=.11$) and expatriate experience ($r=.13$). Younger individuals ($r=-.16$) and males ($r=.11$) scored higher on GCO, relative to their older and/or female counterparts. Corroborating the correlation results on expatriate experience, independent samples t-tests revealed differences on three constructs between those having lived for a period (vs. not) outside of the UK/US. Expatriates (vs. those lacking the experience of living abroad) reported significantly higher ($p<.05$) mean scores on COS ($t=-4.55$), XEN ($t=-2.34$), and GCO ($t=-3.05$).

“Insert Table 2 about here”

5.1.2 Cluster analysis. Probing the modest negative correlation ($r=-.09$, $p=.035$, re: SPSS) between XEN and CET—constructs presumed to be polar opposites—a k-means cluster analysis was conducted (Table 3) on the basis of respondents’ scores on these two constructs. A cursory glance at Figure 3 indicates that for some respondents, the constructs are not necessarily opposed. It also shows that the spread between the various construct means is narrower and tends to rise and fall in lockstep for the three middle-ground clusters, whereas the dispersion in construct scoring is pronounced for the two clusters positioned at either end of inward (parochial) or outward (transnational) orientation.

Taking in approximately 18% of the sample (proportionally many more Americans than British), the first cluster denotes the inward-oriented *parochial consumer*: individuals scoring comparatively high on CET, relatively low on XEN, and rather low on COS. Compared to other clusters, this archetype was amongst the least materialistic (MAT) and minimally concerned about the natural environment; and as expected, scored highest on consciousness-of-kind (CK) and lowest on global consumption orientation (GCO). The second cluster also contained approximately 18% of respondents—and unlike the parochial cluster, was disproportionately British—and was dubbed the *nonchalant consumer* on account of their relative indifference to consumer centricism bases; i.e., scoring relatively low on CET and XEN, moderate on COS, as well below-average scoring on CK and GCO. The third and largest cluster (with ~31% of respondents, with slightly more American than British

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members) designates the *polycentric consumer*: moderate scores on both CET and XEN, and approximately average scores on COS. These persons are balanced between identity bases, perhaps slipping into one (e.g., more parochial, referencing one’s membership group) or another (e.g., outwardly-oriented, referencing an aspirational group), depending on the social or consumption circumstances (Askegaard et al. 2005; Oswald 1999). Levels on the other four constructs were moderate for this group, very close to the overall means reported in Table 1.

Cluster 4, containing the second-smallest number of respondents (~10%, with most members hailing from the United States), was labeled the *contradictory consumer* on account of this group’s high mean scores on both XEN and CET despite scoring above-average COS levels. While it is possible that the combined high scores are indicative of social desirability (i.e., respondents wanting to appear as loyal British/American consumers but also as global citizens), if this were the case we might expect this group to also score significantly higher than the other clusters on NEC (which they did *not*, excepting the parochial cluster). As an environmental concept, NEC is especially prone to social desirability bias (Cleveland et al., 2012). They also reported, by a significant margin, the highest scores on materialism; a concept which could be deemed as superficial/greedy and thus should diminish rather than augment scores, if desirability bias was operational. The archetypal contradictory consumer may vacillate between a local (CET) and more outward (XEN) identity subject to priming by the consumption context. This is partly evidenced by the above average scores on CK and GCO as well as on MAT, which may account for this seemingly incongruous finding. With 23% of respondents (and proportionately more British), cluster 5 was the closest thing to a *transnational consumer* group, with a low degree of CET, and a relatively elevated degree of outward orientation (as evidenced by XEN and especially, COS scores). Among the clusters, these worldly consumers expressed the highest concern for the natural environment.

“Insert Table 3 and Figure 3 about here”

5.2 Multigroup SEM analyses

5.2.1 *Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA)*. Using AMOS21, CFA assessed the psychometric properties and underlying structure, following the steps described by Byrne (2001). Baseline measurement and structural models were tested (Table 4). With an adjusted chi-square ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}$) of 5.04, a comparative fit index (CFI) of .96, and a root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) of .09, the measurement model incorporating the three core centrism constructs yielded respectable fit^{viii} as well as strong item loadings on their latent factors (i.e., far right-hand column in Table 1); excepting the second observed item for XEN, which was mediocre but retained in order to have the minimum of three observed items per construct. Turning to the expanded set of constructs (i.e., the core plus MAT, CK, NEC, GCO), the same procedure was followed, for which good fit statistics were revealed ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}$ =3.24, CFI=.92, and RMSEA=.06). Modification indices were employed sparingly to identify areas of possible misfit. The largest were revealed for a subset of seven pairs of within-construct error terms. The specification of covariance paths led to a substantial decrease (that is, improvement) in model χ^2 (instituted for error terms within-constructs, for 1 CET pair and 6 MAT pairs). This is appropriate provided it can be theoretically justified. In terms of face validity, the composite items for CET and MAT—constructs long established in the literature—are quite close in meaning. Consequently it is reasonable to assume a systematic response pattern within the measures for each (Bollen and Lennox 1991). According to all indicators, the model fit improved noticeably ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}$ =2.50, CFI=0.95, RMSEA=0.05).

Aggregate dataset latent factor correlations appear above the diagonal in the top half of Table 2. The valences of the centrism construct correlations were reproduced. All other hypothesized findings were also consistent with the SPSS correlations reported earlier, and to avoid redundancy are not restated. Next, the three core centrism constructs were structurally linked to a nomological network, conceived as antecedent to the remaining latent constructs (Appendix C). The summary parameters (Table 4) indicated a good fit ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}$ =2.65, CFI=0.94, RMSEA=0.06).

“Insert Table 4 about here”

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5.2.2 *Multigroup CFA*. To gauge cross-cultural applicability and to identify construct relationship differences between the UK/US, multigroup CFA was conducted following the Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) procedure. The first step entails establishing configural equivalence (i.e., baseline models). Changes in χ^2 assess incremental improvements in the nested models' goodness-of-fit. A hierarchy of nested models were tested (Table 4), each imposing additional constraints on the number of invariant parameters (Byrne 2001). The fit statistics for models 1a (constraining all measurement-weights [factor loadings] to equality across the two samples) and model 1b (constraining structural-covariances and measurement-weights to equality) were highly acceptable yet slightly inferior to the unconstrained model 1 ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}=2.91$, CFI=.96, RMSEA=.06). Although the decline in model fit for the measurement weights constrained (vs. unconstrained) model was significant ($\Delta\chi^2=35.59$, $\Delta\text{d.f.}=10$, $p<.01$), the difference between the model constraining measurement weights and that constraining structural covariances in addition to measurement weights, was not ($\Delta\chi^2=10.80$, $\Delta\text{d.f.}=6$, $p=.095$). This insinuates at a few parameters associated with CET, XEN and COS are noninvariant between the datasets. For model 1 (unconstrained), the factor loadings across the groups were all significant ($p<.001$); out of 26 standardized loadings (13 parameters x two countries), only two were $<.70$ (XEN_c, UK/US=.44/.60, with superscript letter denoting item in Table 1). For the measurement-weights-constrained model 1a, all loadings were significant ($p<.001$) with only two $<.70$ (XEN_c, UK/US=.52/.52). Note that for the latter model, standardized (but not unstandardized) parameter estimates vary slightly across the groups because the variances of the variables are not constrained.

Regarding the complete set of constructs, models 2a (measurement-weights-constrained: $\Delta\chi^2=52.86$, $\Delta\text{d.f.}=24$, $p=.0001$) and 2b (structural covariances constrained: $\Delta\chi^2=132.16$, $\Delta\text{d.f.}=28$, $p<.001$) were acceptable although slightly inferior to the unconstrained model 2. This again points to the presence of some invariant parameters.^{vi} For models 2-2a-2b, for both countries, all factor loadings were significant ($p<.001$). As expected and underscoring the structural stability of this construct network, the loading patterns for CET, XEN and COS mirrored those derived from models 1-1b. In

practice, in most cases full measurement invariance is an ideal to be striven for rather than a realizable outcome (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). For the expanded nomological network of constructs, the assumption of partial metric invariance is reasonably supported herewith (Byrne 2001).

5.2.3 Latent factor correlations. Latent factor correlations are from model 2a, with UK (US) findings listed above (below) the diagonal in the bottom half of Table 2. Out of 21 coefficients, eight (ten) significant correlations were found for the UK (US). Similarities between the samples included the positive COS-XEN relationship, and the negative COS-CET link. However, whereas the XEN-CET relationship was independent for British respondents, it was significantly negative for Americans. Concerning the expanded nomological network, similarities exist regarding the positive linkages between CET-CK, XEN-GCO, and MAT-GCO; although the magnitude of the relationship was considerably stronger for the British for the first correlation, whereas for the Americans the correlations were stronger for the latter two sets. Remaining relationships were country-specific. The COS-GCO and XEN-MAT relationships were strongly positive (not significant, i.e., independent) for Americans (British). Variation in causal patterns of cosmopolitanism and xenocentrism across the two samples may account for these differences. CK and NEC were also, to a lesser magnitude, negatively (independently) associated for US (British) respondents. A positive (independent) XEN-NEC correlation emerged for the UK (US) sample, whereas a negative (independent) COS-CK correlation emerged for UK (US) respondents. The most noticeable difference was on the relationship of cosmopolitanism and natural environment concern: strongly positive for British, yet perplexingly strongly negative for Americans. Other coefficients were not significant for either sample.

“Insert Table 5 about here”

5.2.4 Path analyses. Omnibus statistics indicated that the baseline structural (causal) model linking the core constructs to the wider nomological set of constructs represented an excellent fit to the data.ⁱⁱⁱ Following multigroup analyses (Table 4), the fit statistics for the more restrictive models (3a, 3b, and 3c) showed marginal deterioration in model fit compared against the fully unconstrained model 3. The significant change in chi-square between the nested models indicates that some parameters were

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noninvariant; corroborating the previous measurement model analyses (models 2, 2a, 2b). The path coefficients employed for interpretation (Table 5) have the measurement-weights constrained to equality across the two datasets, whereas the structural paths linking the core constructs to the nomological network constructs are freely estimated.

Comparatively few relationships were common across country datasets, drawing into question the robustness of certain consumer behavior theories across countries. As shown in Table 5, for each inter-construct structural path, the presence of country-sample differences was assessed by constraining the focal path to equality and testing the significance of the corresponding increase in model χ^2 , relative to the model (measurement-weights constrained) with all other latent paths freely estimated. Chi-square tests performed on path relationships amply demonstrate relationship variations, with significant differences (magnitude and/or direction) yielded on the majority (7 out of 12) paths. Whereas the paths for XEN→GCO and CET→CK, were consistently positive, the XEN→GCO path was of a substantially greater magnitude for Americans ($\Delta\chi^2=3.39$, $p<.01$). Consumers high on XEN, particularly Americans, are apt to have a strong global consumption orientation; those high on CET have a high attraction to their kin, kith and kind (i.e., ingroup orientation). For one relationship, the findings were completely in contradiction: British cosmopolitans express high concern for the natural environment, contrary to their American counterparts who are on the whole, and less likely to be troubled by ecological concerns ($\Delta\chi^2=48.01$, $p<.001$). Remaining significant paths were country-specific. COS was inversely (although marginally below statistical significance) related to CK among Britons, whereas the two constructs were evidently compatible among Americans ($\Delta\chi^2=10.20$, $p<.01$). Contrary to predictions, among Americans only ($\Delta\chi^2=4.90$, $p<.05$), CET was positively antecedent to GCO. Consistent with expectations, COS predicted GCO, but once again was significant only for Americans ($\Delta\chi^2=3.84$, $p<.05$). Likewise, for Americans only ($\Delta\chi^2=13.75$, $p<.001$), as posited XEN was very strongly antecedent to MAT. Lastly, among Britons only ($\Delta\chi^2=7.15$, $p<.01$), CET was positively predictive of NEC. As predicted and consistent across countries, MAT was independent of both cosmopolitanism and consumer ethnocentrism, whereas NEC was independent of xenocentrism. The

expected negative path linking xenocentrism to CK was not significant in either country. Taken together, the findings lend consistent support to H1a, H2b, H3a, H3c, and H4b, and mixed support for H1c, H2c, H3b, H4a, and H4c. Findings for H2a are counter to predictions, while H1b lacks statistical support.

The baseline structural model yielded a satisfactory fit for the overall dataset ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}=2.92$, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.06), which was replicated for the American dataset ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}=2.03$, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.06).^{vii} For the UK dataset, although the CFI was on the cusp of being below the .90 cutoff (Hu and Bentler 1999), other fit statistics were acceptable ($\chi^2/\text{d.f.}=2.10$, CFI=.89, RMSEA=.06). Multigroup analyses proceeded in the manner described earlier. As was the case with the structural path models linking the core constructs to the broader construct set, the fit statistics for the more restrictive models (4a, 4b, and 4c; constraining measurement-weights, structural-weights and structural-covariances, respectively) showed minor deterioration in model fit compared against the fully unconstrained model 4 (Table 4). Similarly, the significant change in chi-square between the nested models signifies that several parameters—particularly the structural paths—are noninvariant between the two datasets. Interpretations follow from the measurement-weights-constrained model 4a. The structural paths (Table 5) linking demographics to the constructs are freely estimated for each country. Appendix D contains a subset of other findings with respect to demographic study variables.

6. Discussion and implications

The negative links between CET-COS, and the positive connection between XEN-COS were all confirmed on the latent factor results for the combined dataset, as well as for each country sample. The negative correlation between CET-XEN evidenced only for the American sample, and was of a considerably lower magnitude than that for CET-COS; intimating that XEN is not as much in conflict with CET as originally conceived, and evidently not as strongly opposite as COS. This finding hints to the aforementioned third explanation for XEN: whereby the individual endeavors to compensate for his/her ethnocentric tendencies by assuming its counterpart, however incompletely. In addition, and

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consistent for the overall sample and both countries, the projected inverse XEN-CK relationship was not evidenced. Rather, the link was independent despite the robust positive CET-CK connection (confirmed for the latent factor correlation and the structural path). This substantiates the argument that XEN supplements rather than supplants national affiliation.

As evinced by the largest segment (Figure 3) revealed—the polycentric consumer—it is important that practitioners remember that in certain instances multiple loci of identity may be simultaneously operational, whereas in other situations (e.g., product-category/consumption context), consumers may swap between identities. Associative network memory theory (Keller 1993) and signaling theory (Erdem and Swait 1998) implicate how consumers decide from a constellation of local, foreign, and global product options. Upon activation of a brand node by way of retrieval cues (product categories, brand names, and so forth), linkages such as product attributes and semantic associations (e.g., ingroups and/or outgroups, and corresponding levels of felt identification) become salient. Firms can manipulate signals, including associations towards or away from countries/cultures, to position products and persuade consumers. To the cosmopolitan consumer, global brands might signal widespread recognition and availability, foreign brands could signal sophistication/prestige and authenticity, whereas local brands could signal reverence for cultural traditions (Özsomer 2012) as well as pecuniary contributions to the national economy. The latter should resonate particularly with ethnocentric customers.

Vertical segmentation—the conventional approach to adapting strategies—entails developing marketing mixes for each country, from the near limitless combination of demographic, economic and psychographic variables. Recognizing the globalization of media and the widespread movement of products and peoples across borders, some researchers advocate implementing horizontal segmentation, targeting similar groups of consumers with an essentially uniform marketing strategy, irrespective of where they might live (Bolton and Myers 2003). Our stance is that consumers’ inward and outward dispositions—towards their own and different countries, cultures, and products—are suitable constructs for designing horizontal strategies. On the other hand, if cosmopolitanism,

consumer ethnocentrism and xenocentrism are treated as attitudes, each can relate to domain-specific behavior rather than treated as generalized values for all products and/or cultures. The upshot is that a person can display ethnocentrism about one supplier of a product but xenocentrism about another. Further, ethnocentrism can co-exist with xenocentrism (Swartz 1961), since a society can feel superior to one yet inferior to another. This consequently would reduce the strength of the negative relationships between the constructs, which explains the non-significant CET-XEN correlation for the UK.

The positive structural path found between COS and consciousness-of-kind for the US sample could also indicate the presence of cross-pressures, whereby one's national identity is coupled with a transnational identity that are both complementary and yet conflicting (Arnett 2002). Consumers may vacillate between local and global (and perhaps, still other) identities, as appropriate to the circumstances at hand. These findings also repudiates Levitt's (1983) forecast about the inevitable homogenization of culture across countries. Cosmopolitanism can be demonstrated on a continuum from strong to weak. A superficial form of COS is cultural sampling (Kendall et al. 2009; Cannon and Yaprak 2012), where individuals try out a virtually self-enhancing experience (e.g., participating in social media with others having similar leisure interests but living in different countries), which is fleeting rather than strategically intended for long-term effect. Kendall et al (2009) consider this a weak form of cosmopolitanism. This hypothetically creates mass awareness and mobilization of external issues and events that could in turn pose risk to the security of the nation and to the self; thereby encouraging consciousness-of-kind. This could pose an alternate explanation for the positive COS-CK relationship obtained for the US sample. As noted earlier, a significantly negative COS-CK correlation did emerge among UK respondents, although the structural path was not significant.

Cosmopolitans seek out new consumption experiences and are adept at recontextualising new experiences with old, seeking the best products on merit (Askegaard et al. 2005). Global brands assist consumers in expressing aspirational values with like-minded people (Holt, Quelch and Taylor 2004) convey membership to global communities (McCracken 1986), can create perception of availability both locally and within several foreign markets (Steenkamp, Batra and Alden 2003) and serve as

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credible market indicators of achieving consistency and hence reduced perceived risk (Dimofte et al. 2008). International marketers would be wise to employ communication appeals and develop brand personalities that resonate with the cosmopolitan consumer. By virtue of their receptiveness towards external cultures (and presumably, associated products), their high cultural capital (Bourdieu 1986) and expansive social networks (Holt 1998), as well as their aptitude for recomposing dissimilar cultural fragments (Hannerz 1990), cosmopolitans crucially serve as innovators and disseminators of fashion, and thus, brand ambassadors for local, foreign, and global products alike.

7. Limitations

Generalizability of the findings is bounded by the Anglo-centric sample frame. One obvious research direction is to reexamine construct interrelationships, recruiting consumers from other countries/cultures, and to include a broader array of antecedent (e.g., Schwartz’s [1999] individual and cultural values) and outcome variables, such as consumption.

Despite the Anglo-centric samples, interesting differences emerge. British cosmopolitans are positively concerned about NEC, whereas for the US, the relationship between COS and NEC is negative. This suggests that more acculturation doesn’t necessarily lead to more concern for the natural environment. One explanation for this difference between the two countries suggests that the types of cosmopolitanism displayed between the two countries might be different, suggesting research into their antecedents. This offers provisional evidence that our UK COS sample consists principally of global types rather than local types (as they wish to preserve the finite resources of the world).

Xenocentrists, although related to cosmopolitans, report significantly higher positive relationships with GCO than do cosmopolitans for both countries (Table 5). The consistently positive relationship between xenocentrism and GCO suggests that xenocentrists are attracted toward other cultures rather than marginalized as was suggested by one of our alternative causal factors. Pearson correlations (Table 2) reveal that xenocentrists from the States are far more likely to be materialistic than their counterparts from the UK 0.40 vs. US 0.60. Future research should explore the underlying causes behind xenocentrists for each country.

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We note that CET and CK are remarkably lower for Britain (mean = 3.46 and 6.57) compared to that for US (CET = 6.11, CK = 8.07), whereas NEC is significantly greater in Britain (NEC = 6.56 versus 4.14). Britain is more culturally diverse relative to America, and being a relatively small island (comparing land masses) probably reflects the greater propensity for travelling outside the country, leading to lower CET and CK. Britain (with the exception of Scotland) is a relatively highly populated country, and may help to explain greater concern for the natural environment. The issues of insufficient housing stock versus protection of Greenfield sites is never far from the news, creating environmental tensions between families, environmentalists, and the government, making NEC a relevant concern in Britain.

Multiple Centrism: A Spectrum of Future Research Initiatives

Multiple centrism (MC) is a conceptual system of consumer dispositions involving ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism and xenocentrism. MC is a central generalized construct for understanding and predicting international consumer behavior using identity as a theoretical foundation. This section on MC encompasses the focus of future initiatives in domains of theory, research or practice.

Within each MC initiative, we discuss a proposed agenda of problems for scholars. Building on the results of the present study, the agenda locates, formulates or defines strategic problems that advance knowledge associated with MC. While the issues set forth are extensive, they are not exhaustive. Neighboring consumer behavior concepts may be touched upon. However, they are not systematically considered in their own right. For salient agenda topics that are addressed, concrete originating ideas are framed so as to operationalize, streamline and accelerate scholarly effort.

Consumer Centrism. Cast as a theoretical concept for decades, consumer xenocentrism has yet to be intensively explored. Conceptualized as contrary to CET, contrary lexical semantics of scales for CET were proposed to signify XEN. In the present study, consistent with the focal ingroups that favor domestic vs. foreign affiliations, which are diametrically polarized, a negative relationship between CET and XEN was found that was weaker than expected. It is acknowledged that consumers can

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display both xenocentrism and ethnocentrism, in which a preference for the out-group need not necessitate resentment for the in-group, and may reflect no pure xenocentric types (Kent and Burnight 1951; Swartz 1961). Further, Lawrence (2012) pointed to xenocentrism reflected in an Italian-born naturalized U.S. citizen cheering for Italy against the US in a high profile soccer match.

A closer look at XEN and CET reveal that they share some important underlying behavioral drivers representing affective states, such as economic instrumentality and ancestral roots that weaken any negative directionality of the constructs. Under economic instrumentality, xenocentrism is represented by low status groups motivated by the high status accorded to economically advanced nations that can over-value a foreign culture. For example, Western brand favoritism has supplanted local products in emerging markets (Belk 1988). Under ethnocentrism, group economic instrumentality is triggered under national economic hardship, and may be defensively adopted through patriotism or nationalism.

The triggers that lever the importance of ancestry differ between xenocentrics and ethnocentrics that can strengthen negative relationships. Xenocentrics can be intrinsically motivated through idolatry and sentimentality of their forefathers' land, such as second and third generation progeny (Kent and Burnight 1951); or yearn for modernity (Alden et al. 1999; Van Elteren 1996), possibly triggered through an ex-colonial ideological conditioning that their domestic roots are backward (Gerth, 2003; Belk 2000). The quest for modernity might also reflect a retrenchment from the traditional, signaling sophistication and independence (Mueller and Broderick 2010). In contrast, ethnocentrists tend to support their familiar and traditional roots. Whereas ethnocentrism reflects a need to restore pride in retention of local employment and for support local industry, the consequences of xenocentrism can reduce pride in local industry and weaken local employment. This points to a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and xenocentrism. The above discussion supports both the

causality, direction, and magnitude of direction of our position that CET and XEN are weakly and negatively correlated.

The findings reveal that nonchalant (Low CET, low XEN), contradictory (high CET, high XEN) and the polycentric (moderate CET and Moderate XEN) clusters, each from Table 3, substantiate our claim that xenocentrism is not the pure obverse of ethnocentrism and supports the notion that CET and XEN share commonalities. These findings lead to a series of searching questions. Who precisely are these xenocentric, cosmopolitan and polycentric consumer types? Can they be broadly identified through standard demographics or are there more subtle drivers at work? Specifically, further research is required to isolate the antecedent levers behind different types of cosmopolitan and xenocentric behaviors. We might expect that local types might share some traits with ethnocentrists, whereas global types might share more traits with xenocentrists than ethnocentrists. Future research needs to distinguish more clearly between how local and global types are formed both at the perceptual, attitudinal, and the behavioral level.

Since our largest cluster represents only moderate levels of both ethnocentrism and xenocentrism, this would suggest that many consumers are in a state of flux and prone to change that might be both product-specific and conditioned by their social environment. Merton (1972), for instance, suggested ethnocentrism is prone to intensified social conflict, in which deprecation of outsiders can provoke counterethnocentrism-a potential contributor of xenocentrism.

Further, CET and COS were negatively associated as might have been expected. Cleveland et al. (2009) verified that the interrelationship of CET and COS was generally negative (for the majority of eight countries investigated).

De Ruyter, van Birgelen and Wetzels (1998) found that there was a negative relationship between cultural openness (as a proxy for COS) and CET within a services context. Cosmopolitan

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consumers are open-minded and receptive to diverse experiences (Szerszynski and Urry 2002), and therefore less driven by conservative dispositions and a conformity to the traditions of their own culture associated with CET (de Ruyter *et al.* 1998; McCrae and Costa 1997).

Our empirical findings in the present study show that XEN and COS are positively related. Both cosmopolitans and xenocentrics share common traits with regard to non-domestic products and, therefore, are expected to have a positive relationship. Some motives of xenocentrists, such as the need for individuality, are more easily symbolized by foreign goods that overlap with cosmopolitanism than local goods (Howes 1996, Van Elteren 1996). From a cosmopolitan perspective, preference should be based on merit that could lead to the local market choice (Merton 1957) rather than a xenocentric perspective that is typically biased against the local market (Mueller et al. 2010). Whilst COS has often been attributed to individuals evaluating other groups without bias towards domestic or foreign groups (Kent and Burnight 1951), this definition can be advanced through ideal types (See Merton 1957). Specifically, individuals can be categorised on a continuum, anchored by reaching out purely toward local types (protective of local communities) or global types that share more concern about global communities (Merton 1957). Evidence of this continuum can be inferred by the acknowledged tensions between cosmopolitans in reconciling their divergent cultural experiences against their emotional and psychological bonds to their home or global cultures (Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Thompson and Tambyah 1999). Although products rated according to their perceived merits alone create an impression of objectivity, if the point of comparison constitutes either global or local reference points, estimating perceptions of merit in our judgment remain subjective and are ripe for further research. Since xenocentrism and global types are attracted to out-groups (suggesting a strong correlation) this would be muted for local types, leading to a weaker correlation with cosmopolitanism. The strength of correlation will vary according to the precise mix of local and global types tested.

Based on evidence from other published studies, and inferential thinking, we turn to the social identity framework as a foundation for future research. Consumer centrist behavior research of the

future should extend social identity theory for group referents of national identity, associated with national and international sentiments (Reed, Forehand, Puntoni and Warlop 2012). Theory building can proceed by modeling the process of identity formation and expression, according to five basic principles: (1) identity salience, (2) identity association, (3) identity relevance, (4) identity verification, and (5) identity conflict. Consistent with general theory advanced by Reed et al (2012), propositions bearing on identity theory and COS, XEN and CET behaviors follow:

- P1: *Factors increasing salience of a consumer centrist identity will have a heightened influence on related behavior.*
- P2: *Products associated with a positively regarded consumer centrist identity will themselves be more highly regarded, and assume new positive associations of their own.*
- P3: *Relevance of consumer behaviors stemming from consumer centrist identity will increase when identity information is deliberately processed.*
- P4: *Introspective processing of environmental feedback will self-monitor progress toward a consumer centrist identity.*
- P5: *Reduction over time of conflict between multiple consumer centrist identities will generally take place.*

Within this same theoretical framework, relationships between the consumer centrist dispositions of XEN, COS, and CET should be cross-culturally and globally replicated. From a methodological standpoint, to answer the question as to whether a single model is involved cross-culturally, structural equation hypotheses in multi-cultural regional analysis should be tested for invariance. This would involve equality of sets of parameters of a linear structural model i.e., tests of equal factor regression coefficients, where path coefficients among latent factors are the same for all regional groups. A multi-sample test analyzes data from all samples simultaneously to verify that a

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model, identical in all groups, reproduces the sample data of each group within sampling accuracy (Bentler 1995).

Additionally, for the sake of theory-building, variables associated with links between only one or two of these consumer centrist dispositions should be associated with the XEN, COS and CET trilogy within single investigations. Social identity variables that reflect individual alienation, self-esteem, social class, generation cohort, sex-roles, and social values may be among the predictors in future models of centrist. This also would include in future consumer centrist research, cultural adaptiveness, which positively predicted COS, and dominion over resources of other peoples, a negative predictor of COS (Cleveland and LaRoche 2012).

Reference group theory in a social identification perspective is another interesting framework for studies of consumer centrist. The desirability or undesirability of salient reference groups, and the motivation to identify with selected reference groups is another promising avenue for the study of consumer centrist (see Tajfel and Turner 1979; Tajfel 1981). Because dynamics of intergroup social comparisons are at work in consumer centrist, perceived status of domestic and foreign nations will be important to measure and include in future models.

Managerial implications of consumer centrist are manifold. Future investigations of COS, CET and XENO should examine their differential response patterns to functional and symbolic products in diverse product categories. Additionally, this should be examined within the context of varied situations, involving usage occasions for a product class. Another managerially oriented research orientation concerns the mind-sets of centrist types with respect to value assessment of specific products and brands i.e., willingness to pay at varying price levels. Is there a premium to be exploited by marketers who can identify consumers with insatiable desires for specific group recognition and identity and how sustainable are such strategies? Another avenue for practical research concerns receptivity of COS, CET and XENO groups to traditional vs. newer sophisticated product class offerings.

Market segmentation by consumer centrism can be aggregated for countries that are prime markets for particular product classes where traditional demographics fail to discriminate. This would improve marketing efficiency with strategies extending to multi-country markets. Consumer centrism knowledge comes to the fore when marketing communications strategies are involved. Diffusion of innovations may take into account the effective targeting of innovators predicted by consumer centrism segments. Finally, for existing brands, communications strategies that emphasize exotic and unique branding should, in principle, have differential effects on COS, CET and XEN consumers.

Researchers must exercise caution when applying the measures to dissimilar cultures and languages as some items may have culture-bound properties. The cross-sectional design does not preclude directional ambiguity about the cause-and-effect relationships reported. We conceived CET, XEN, and COS at the same temporal level, but it would worthwhile determining whether there is any evolutionary sequence amongst these identity-related constructs, and assessing the stability of each over extended periods and across circumstances. While Lumb and Kuperman (2012) tracked the stability of ethnocentrism longitudinally from 1994 to 2006 and found it to be relatively stable, nobody has tracked trends for cosmopolitanism or xenocentrism.

Future investigations could further probe subcultural/regional differences within (e.g., Québécois) and between nations (e.g., Kurds); as well as develop and incorporate measures for assessing the relative influence of supranational/religious bases of identity (European, etc.). In some world regions, the sway of the nation-state—and corresponding identity—may be declining with globalization, whereas linguistic, ethnic, and other minority identities may be reinvigorating (Cleveland and Laroche 2012). On the other hand, status conferral is a major motive in buying foreign products, and this motive is strengthened during periods of socio-economic change and resulting status uncertainty (Ger and Belk 1996b). Mueller et al. (2010) argue that consumer xenocentrism as a source of foreign product bias has its roots in status, modernity, oppositional buying and ethnic identity. Modernity is associated with political and economic values of freedom and choice and the needs of

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individuals. This leads to a search for the latest, most advanced products from nations beyond domestic boundaries. Oppositional buying involves consumers displaying their ideological rejection of their own mainstream culture. Ethnic identity comes into play when a group buys foreign products that symbolize their ethnicity.

Nationalism and patriotism are sometimes viewed as interchangeable concepts related to a sense of national superiority (Smith and Rosen 1958). However, they are more accurately distinguished by degree: patriotism is conceptualized as “commitment,” or a willingness to sacrifice for a nation, while nationalism is commitment combined with resentment or hostility toward, or exclusion of, other nations (Balabanis et al. 2001; Druckman 1994). There are cases when a consumer actively avoids products from a specific country even while believing these products to be of high quality and value (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998), for reasons other than nationalism or patriotism. These biases occur due to animosity toward a particular country, rather than a conceptualization that products from these countries are inferior (i.e., COO) or that purchasing foreign-made products will harm the domestic economy (i.e., CET). Whereas CET is understood to color evaluations of product attributes, animosity is independent. The relationship of these other concepts to the three centrism dimensions merit empirical research.

Centrism is further viewed as being directly and indirectly influenced by other personally- and socially-related variables. As Sharma et al. (1995) note, tendencies toward ethnocentrism do not develop in isolation, but are the result of numerous demographic, social, and psychological influences. For example, further research might investigate how the narrow range of media exposure associated with ethnocentrics might affect their dispositions toward foreignness. Along these lines, original questions for research into consumer centrism include the following: How does incidence of consumer centrism types vary by social groups and categories (émigré groupings, social classes, generations, education levels, political orientations, and lifestyles)? What role does the sense of rejection, alienation, social isolation play in the process of generating consumer centrism? Does exposure to extreme one type of centrism from negative reference individuals trigger formation of other types?

Does the extent of contact with other societies fuel the growth of consumer centrism types? What roles do integrated and conflicting cultural values in society play in generating consumer centrism? Do people go through stages of consumer centrism?

Some queries concern facts, others address the utility of concepts, and still others address the accuracy of empirical generalizations involving antecedents or consequences of attitudes or behaviors. Clearly, much more work needs to be done. The innovative development of knowledge from broadened but integrated perspective in these areas will result in strategic marketing insights and significant implications for global marketing practice.

In conclusion, priorities for consumer centrism research initiatives involve relations between:

1. Political ideologies and centrist consumer dispositions e.g. socialist vs capitalist.
2. Political attitudes and centrist consumer dispositions e.g., domestic economy and jobs.
3. Mediators of relations between centrist consumer dispositions e.g., NEC, GCO, COK and MAT.
4. Product status and quality impact on centrist consumer dispositions e.g., cosmopolitan preferences for prestige brands.
5. Relations between global dispositions and consumer dispositions e.g., ethnocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism.
6. Values that differentiate between consumer centrist dispositions e.g., cultural openness and consumer xenocentrism vs. consumer cosmopolitanism.
7. Media involvement corresponding to centrist dispositions.
8. Travel patterns that differentiate consumer centrist segments.
9. Lifestyle patterns of varied consumer centrist dispositions.
10. Cross-culture contacts and exposure of consumer centrists.
11. Buying behavior of hybrid types of consumer centrists e.g., low CET and low Xen consumers.
12. Longitudinal analysis of individual changes in consumer centrist dispositions.
13. Models of the relations between change in buyer behavior of consumer centrists.

14. Relations of country level characteristics to country-level consumer centrist strata.

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Endnotes

ⁱLennon-McCartney, 1966.

ⁱⁱToluna employs procedures to confirm identities/locations, and detect fraudulent respondents (ISP addresses, machine fingerprints, etc.). <http://us.toluna.com/>

ⁱⁱⁱWe used likert scales vs. ranking alternatives since the former were compatible for analysis with our other scales and because we felt that Alden et al.'s (2006) scales representing georientation emphasized a continuum rather than absolute values of 'either or'.

^{iv}UK/US: Bartlett's test ($\chi^2_{946}=6488$, $p \leq .001$ / $\chi^2_{946}=7462$, $p \leq .001$) and KMO test (.805/.846). The factor structure was confirmed for each country, with minor variations concerning the strength of the factor loadings. . A table summarizing these findings is available upon request.

^vCFI, recommended $\geq .90$; RMSEA, recommended $\leq .08$; χ^2 /d.f., values ranging 1-5 indicative of reasonable fit (Hu and Bentler 1999).

^{vi}Out of 62 standardized loadings (31 parameters x two countries) for the unconstrained model 2, eleven (7 for UK, 4 for US) are $< .70$: XEN_c (UK/US=.44/.61), MAT_a (UK/US=.63/.62), MAT_b (UK=.65), MAT_d (US=.65), MAT_e (US=.64), MAT_g (UK=.54), NEC_d (UK=.68), CK_d (UK=.52), and GCO_c (UK=.40). For the measurement-weights-constrained model 2a in fourteen cases (9 for UK, 7 for US: whereas unstandardized loadings are equal across the samples, standardized loadings vary, given freely-estimated variances) loadings are $< .70$: XEN_c (UK/US=.53/.53), MAT_a (UK/US=.62/.62), MAT_b (UK/US=.67/.69), MAT_d (UK/US=.69/.69), MAT_e (UK/US=.69/.68), MAT_g (UK/US=.62/.69), CK_d (UK=.53), and GCO_c (UK/US=.52/.65).

^{vii}Overall dataset (χ^2 /d.f.=2.31, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.05), American dataset (χ^2 /d.f.=1.80, CFI=.94, RMSEA=.06) and British dataset (χ^2 /d.f.=2.04, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.06).

Figure 1: Nomothetic Net Matrix Associated with Consumer Centricism

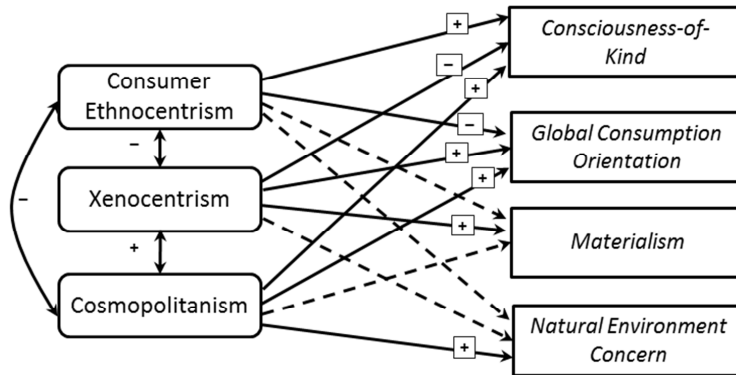
Values Domain	Social Identity	Personal Identity
Consumer	1	2

Values	Global Consumption Orientation	Materialism
Moral Values	3 Consciousness of Kind	4 Natural Environment Concern

Notes: Moral values are based on motives considered appropriate. At a personal level, these could justify a particular concern for the natural environment. At a societal level, these beliefs may become normative to fit in with a social identity.

Consumer values are based on desirable motives for one’s own benefit, either for personal satisfaction and ingratiation (e.g., materialism) or to project an acceptable image to a desirable reference group (e.g. GCO).

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework



Dashed lines indicate predicted independent (non-significant) relationships.

Table 1: Construct Loadings and Reliabilities

Construct (AVE, α : overall/UK/US [10-pt. Likert scales]) ⁱⁱⁱ	EFA Loadings	M (SD)	CFA path (λ_i) ^a
Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET: 4 items, AVE=.885/.857/.877, α=.930/.895/.916)			
• CET _a : Americans* should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American businesses and causes unemployment.	.897	4.78 (2.58)	.887
• CET _b : It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Americans* out of jobs.	.924		.964
• CET _c : A real American* citizen should always buy American*-made products.	.835		.808
• CET _d : We should purchase products manufactured in America* instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	.885		.819
Cosmopolitanism (COS: 6 items, AVE=.894/.879/.893, α=.951/.948/.952)			
• COS _a : I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.	.872	7.78 (1.92)	.864
• COS _b : I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	.875		.891
• COS _c : I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their views and approaches.	.914		.924
• COS _d : I like to observe people of other countries, to see what I can learn from them.	.901		.851
• COS _e : I like to learn about other ways of life.	.920		.877
• COS _f : I find people from other cultures stimulating.	.880		.846
Xenocentrism (XEN: 3 items, AVE=.771/.769/.877, α=.760/.727/.788)			
• XEN _a : We should buy products made from outside of America* to help other countries prosper and grow.	.815	4.73 (1.95)	.774

• XEN _b : It is our obligation as American* citizens to buy products from other countries to help their people avoid poverty.	.834		.891
• XEN _c : Buying American* products over products made elsewhere hurts the global economy and causes unemployment beyond our boundaries.	.665		.525
Materialism (MAT): 7 items, AVE=.723/.741/.715, α=.872/.872/.878)			
• MAT _a : Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure.	.624	5.01 (2.06)	.601
• MAT _b : I like a lot of luxury in my life.	.621		.659
• MAT _c : My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.	.839		.767
• MAT _d : I would be happier if I could afford more things.	.913		.695
• MAT _e : It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I cannot afford to buy all the things that I would like.	.796		.696
• MAT _f : I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes.	.698		.720
• MAT _g : I like to impress people.	.573		.621
Consciousness-of-Kind (CK): 4 items, AVE=.792/.760/.826, α=.832/.784/.858)			
• CK _a : I feel a strong attachment to American* people.	.869	7.32 (1.96)	.831
• CK _b : I really feel proud to be an American* citizen.	.887		.811
• CK _c : I recognize the strong similarity between myself and other American* people.	.798		.750
• CK _d : I would rather be a citizen of America* than of any other country in the world.	.614		.649
Natural Environment Concern (NEC): 4 items, AVE=.896/.846/.882, α=.919/.880/.905)			
• NEC _a : Very concerned about the natural environment.	.893	5.35 (2.35)	.905
• NEC _b : Very protective of the natural environment.	.924		.936
• NEC _c : Very passionate toward the natural environment.	.896		.824
• NEC _d : An advocate of the natural environment.	.872		.769
Global Consumption Orientation (GCO): 3 items, AVE=.716/.681/.813, α=.734/.648/.794)			
• GCO _a : It is important for me to have a lifestyle that I think is similar to the lifestyle of consumers in many countries around the world rather than one that is more unique to or traditional in America*.	.779	4.86 (1.91)	.809
• GCO _b : I try to blend a lifestyle that is considered unique to or traditional in America* with one that I think is similar to the lifestyle of consumers in many countries around the world.	.781		.720
• GCO _c : I enjoy entertainment that I think is popular in many countries around the world more than traditional forms of entertainment that are popular in my own country.	.588		.574

EFA Items retained. n=542. EFA: SPSS. AVE=Average variance extracted, M=Mean, SD=St. Dev.

*Alternatively, British, etc.

^aCFA: AMOS baseline measurement model (all standardized regression weights significant, p<.001).

Table 2: Correlation Coefficients^a

Combined Dataset Coefficients												
	CET	COS	XEN	MAT	CK	NEC	GCO	Age	Edu	Inc	Sex	Out
CET	1	-.312**	-.079	.056	.419**	-.234**	.012					
COS	-.298**	1	.344**	.042	-.122**	.120**	.265**					
XEN	-.045	.299**	1	.234**	-.038	.006	.519**					
MAT	.049	.063	.190**	1	.060	-.016	.512**					
CK	.429**	-.150**	-.045	.055	1	-.206**	-.008					
NEC	-.238**	.097*	-.032	-.004	-.201**	1	-.039					
GCO	.036	.250**	.433**	.410**	-.011	-.041	1					
Age	.322**	-.201*	-.124**	-.266**	.312**	-.206**	-.159**	1				
Edu	-.141**	.203**	-.045	-.024	-.058	.025	.000	-.093*	1			
Inc	.131**	.011	.011	.050	.183**	-.019	.108*	.238**	.217**	1		
Sex	-.086*	-.009	-.012	.074	.004	-.107*	.107*	-.026	.046	.128*	1	
Out	.010	.192**	.100*	.078	.054	-.061	.131**	.097*	.210**	.231**	.067	1
Latent Construct Coefficients per Country [UK above-diagonal, US below-diagonal] ^b												
	CET	COS	XEN	MAT	CK	NEC	GCO					

CET	1	-.217**	-.012	.106	.344**	.088	-.050
COS	-.218**	1	.321**	.011	-.196**	.321**	.138
XEN	-.187**	.404**	1	.057	-.044	.146*	.409**
MAT	.034	.092	.404**	1	.061	-.110	.440**
CK	.262**	.107	-.058	.073	1	.118	-.032
NEC	-.006	-.315**	-.094	.052	-.159*	1	.124
GCO	-.001	.408**	.613**	.583**	-.035	-.099	1

^aCombined dataset coefficients: *below*-diagonal (SPSS: bivariate Pearson product-moment), *above*-diagonal (AMOS latent-factor).

^bLatent construct coefficients derived from measurement-weights-constrained models;
significant boldfaced, significant common direction (UK and US) italicized. $p \leq .01^{**}$, $p \leq .05^{*}$ (two-tailed).

Table 3: Cluster Analysis (Combined Dataset)

	Clusters					Test
	1: <i>Parochial</i> High-CET & Low-XEN	2: <i>Nonchalant</i> Low-CET & Low-XEN	3: <i>Polycentric</i> Mod-CET & Mod-XEN	4: <i>Contradictory</i> High-CET & High-XEN	5: <i>Transnational</i> Low CET & High XEN	
n(%)	98(18.1)	99(18.3)	167(30.8)	53(9.8)	125(23.1)	542(100)
Proportions ^a :						
US (% cl., % cs)	79 (80.6, 29.4)	17 (17.2, 6.3)	94 (56.3, 34.9)	44 (83.0, 16.4)	35 (28.0, 13.0)	$\chi^2_{(4)}=129.34^{**}$
UK (% cl., % cs)	19 (19.4, 7.0)	82 (82.8, 30.0)	73 (43.7, 26.7)	9 (17.0, 3.3)	90 (72.0, 33.0)	
CET mean(SD)	8.24(1.53)	2.09(1.07)	5.16(0.79)	7.71(1.33)	2.44(1.01)	$F_{4,537}=735.3^{**}$
XEN mean(SD)	3.09(1.27)	2.75(1.18)	4.80(1.00)	7.36(1.30)	6.36(1.56)	$F_{4,537}=255.0^{**}$
COS mean(SD)	6.68(2.17)	7.74(2.12)	7.64(1.80)	8.04(1.53)	8.77(1.23)	$F_{4,537}=19.02^{**}$
MAT mean(SD)	4.68(2.10)	4.70(2.08)	4.91(1.99)	6.32(1.94)	5.10(1.97)	$F_{4,537}=7.0^{**}$
CK mean(SD)	8.63(1.44)	6.34(2.29)	7.42(1.67)	7.91(1.62)	6.66(1.86)	$F_{4,537}=26.2^{**}$
NEC mean(SD)	4.65(2.67)	5.86(2.16)	5.10(2.10)	4.89(2.55)	6.04(2.20)	$F_{4,537}=7.4^{**}$
GCO mean(SD)	4.10(1.96)	4.21(1.88)	4.81(1.56)	6.49(1.83)	5.34(1.81)	$F_{4,537}=21.0^{**}$

p≤.01**, p≤.05* Most cluster pairwise mean tests (Bonferroni) highly significant (p<.01) for CET-XEN; mixed results for pairwise comparisons for other constructs; majority of pairwise means were significantly different.

^a% cl.: proportion of cluster composed of American/British, % cs: country-sample proportion.

Table 4: SEM Analyses

Aggregated Data:	χ^2	d.f.	$\chi^2/\text{d.f.}$	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\text{d.f.}$
Measurement: Core Constructs (COS, XEN, CET)	312.34***	62	5.038	.957	.086		
Measurement: All Constructs (Core + nomological)	1336.53***	413	3.236	.917	.064		
Measurement: All constructs + 7 error covariances	1012.11***	406	2.493	.946	.053		
Structural: Core constructs→remaining constructs ^a	1092.51***	412	2.652	.939	.055		
Multigroup:							
1. Unconstrained measurement: core constructs	360.65**	124	2.91	.956	.059	—	—
1a. Measurement-weights-constrained	396.24**	134	2.96	.951	.060	35.59**	10
1b. Structural-covariances-constrained	407.04**	140	2.91	.950	.059	10.80 ^{ns}	6
2. Unconstrained measurement: all constructs	1438.89**	812	1.77	.940	.038	—	—
2a. Measurement-weights-constrained	1491.75**	836	1.78	.937	.038	52.86**	24
2b. Structural-covariances-constrained	1623.91**	864	1.88	.928	.040	132.16**	28
3. Unconstrained: core→nomological constructs	1530.55**	824	1.86	.933	.040	—	—
3a. Measurement-weights-constrained	1584.04**	848	1.87	.930	.040	53.48**	24
3b. Structural-weights-constrained	1685.76**	860	1.96	.921	.042	101.73**	12
3c. Structural-covariances-constrained	1697.79**	866	1.96	.921	.042	12.03 ^{ns}	6
4. Unconstrained: constructs→demographics	2255.97**	1094	2.06	.894	.044	—	—
4a. Measurement-weights-constrained	2314.77**	1118	2.07	.891	.045	58.79**	24
4b. Structural-weights-constrained	2382.57**	1153	2.07	.888	.044	67.81**	35
4c. Structural-covariances-constrained	2452.02**	1168	2.09	.883	.045	69.44**	15

^aIllustrated in Appendix B. *p<.05, **p<.01; ns=not significant. Multigroup analyses: boldfaced models are interpreted (constraining measurement-weights). All models over-identified.

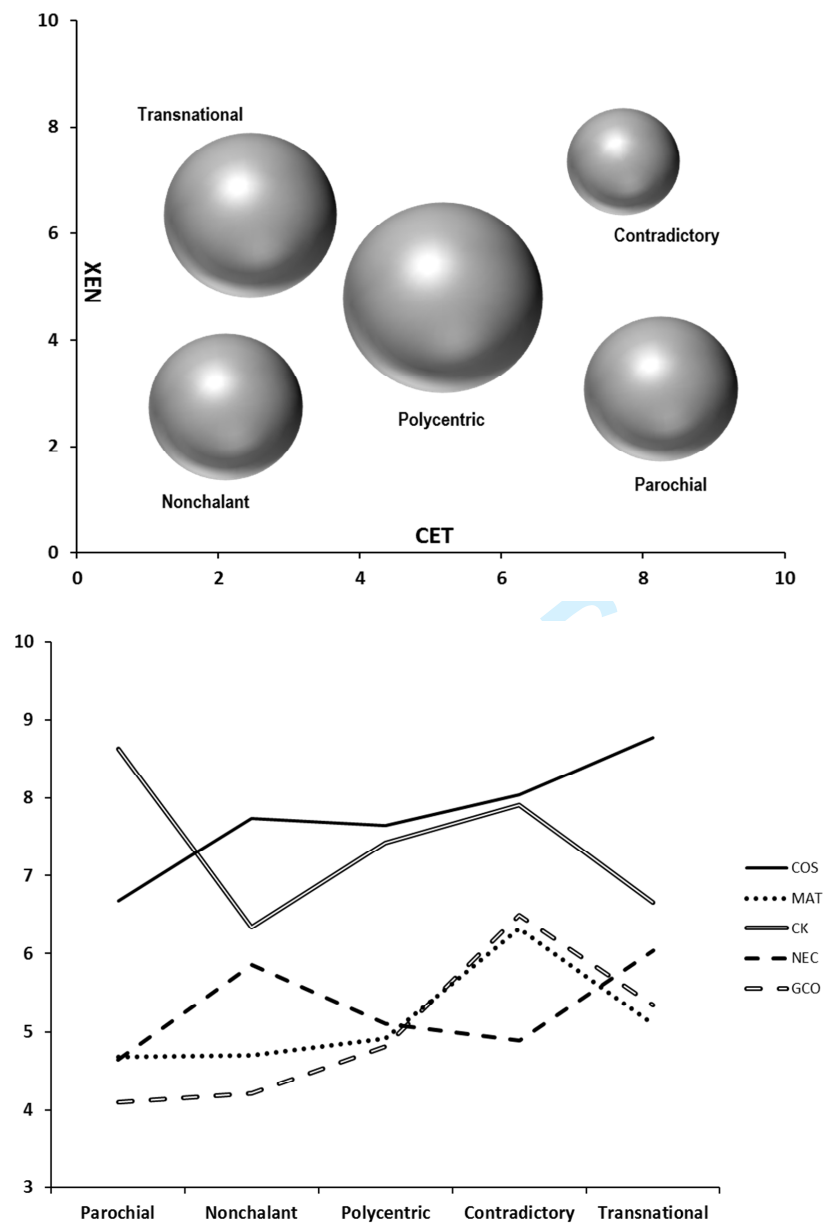
Table 5: Structural Models^a

Hypothesis	Standardized path coefficients			Parameter difference test ^c	
	Overall	UK	USA	Model χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$
COS→					
MAT (H3c ns)	-.036	.006	-.095	1584.89	0.85
CK (H1c +)	.013	-.125	.209**	1594.24	10.20**
GCO (H2c +)	.112*	-.007	.183**	1587.88	3.84*
NEC (H4c +)	.065	.342***	-.350***	1632.05	48.01***
XEN→					
MAT (H3b +)	.286***	.083	.507***	1597.79	13.75***
CK (H1b -)	-.008	-.001	-.092	1584.73	0.69
GCO (H2b +)	.506***	.413***	.604***	1590.43	6.39*
NEC (H4b ns)	-.039	.042	-.043	1584.04	0
CET→					
MAT (H3a ns)	.071	.105	.119	1584.04	0
CK (H1a +)	.424***	.318***	.290***	1584.91	0.87
GCO (H2a -)	.088	-.044	.159**	1588.94	4.90*
NEC (H4a ns)	-.220**	.164**	-.075	1591.19	7.15**

Constructs→Demographics Standardized Path Coefficients (Overall, UK^b/US^b)

	Age→	Edu→	Inc→	Sex ^d →	Out ^d →
COS	-.158*** , -.171** /-.099	.254*** , .130* /.167**	-.008, .079/-.018	-.046, -.062/-.057	.198*** , .186*** /.267***
XEN	-.201*** , -.097 /-.261***	-.101* , -.091 /-.058	.019, -.093 /.035	-.012, -.062 /.061	.124*** , .051 /.184***
CET	.181*** , .153** /.102	-.326*** , -.230** /-.072	.142*** , .053/.125	-.090* , -.073 /-.092	-.013, .051 /-.211***
MAT	-.349*** , -.258*** /.357***	-.130** , -.136* /-.029	.116* , .021/.161*	.064, .115/.029	.092* , .178** /.000
CK	.213*** , .106 /.284***	-.184*** , -.124 /.000	.145*** , .010 /.229***	.010, .020/-.007	.009, .024/-.122
GCO	-.262*** , -.196** /-.261***	-.120** , -.023 /-.105	.132*** , .019 /.160*	.063, .080/.062	.154*** , .211*** /.082
NEC	-.131*** , .073 /-.158**	.276*** , .084 /-.061	.000, .163** /.039	.088* , .042 /.127*	-.085* , .059 /-.003

^aExample model depicted in Appendix B. ^bStandardized regression-weights (measurement-weights-constrained to equality; structural-paths freely estimated). Significant paths boldfaced, $p \leq .001$ ***, $p \leq .01$ **, $p \leq .05$ *.
^cDenotes specific (standardized) structural path constrained to equality across two groups, tests for differences (against measurement-weights-constrained model 3a: $\chi^2=1584.04$, $p < .01$, $df=848$, $\Delta df=1$, i.e., $df=849$), χ^2 critical values: 10.83 ($p < .001$ ***), 6.635 ($p < .01$ **), 3.841 ($p < .05$ *), 2.706 ($p < .10$).
^dDummy-coded. Ordinal: Age=age categories, Edu=Educational attainment, Inc=Household income. See appendix A for scales. Nominal: Sex (female=0, male=1), Out=lived outside country for significant period (0=no, 1=yes).

Figure 3: Clusters and Cluster Construct Scores^a

^aStandardized scores. Bubble sizes proportionate to cluster membership # cases.

Appendix A: CET Studies of Dispositions toward Foreign Purchases

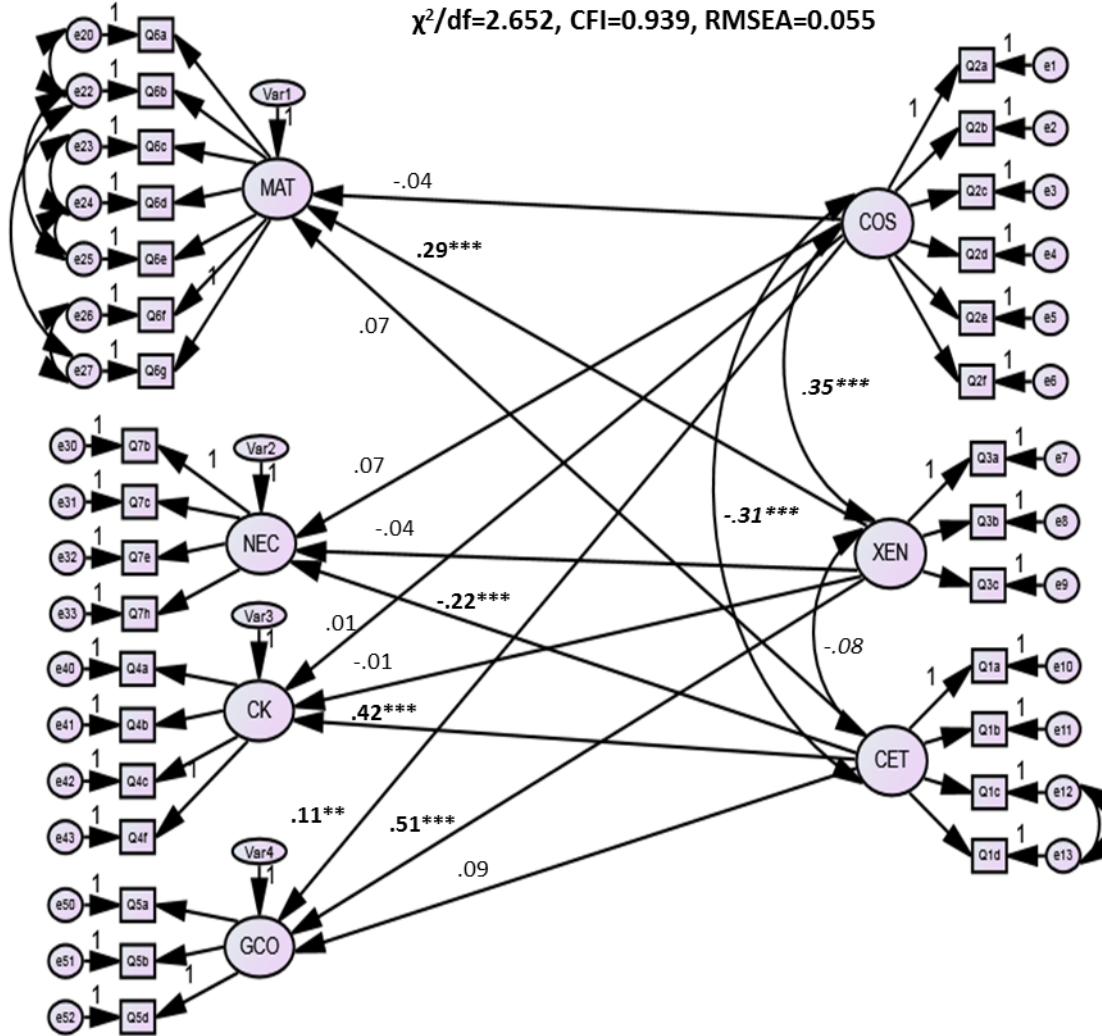
Construct	Author	Sample	Data Collection	Country	Relationship to ethnocentrism
Product evaluation: Making overall judgments of quality about foreign products	Klein et al. (1998)		Mall intercepts	China	Negative
	Klein (2002)		Survey	US	Negative
	Kim and Pysarchik (2000)	Random sample of 291 students from 3 Mid Western US universities from varied backgrounds	Experiment	US	No relationship but brand familiarity could moderate effect of 17 item CET on product evaluation
	Moon and Jain (2001)	239/300 S. Korean adult consumers exposed to foreign ads living in Seoul, S. Korea	Experiment using US, German, French and Italian ads appearing in S.Korea	US	Negative
	Huddleston et al (2001)		Experiment	Poland	Negative
	Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001)	218 Polish ordinary consumers using interval sampling located in shopping centres in Warsaw	Survey using parking bays and mall intercept	Poland	Domestic brands perceived positively despite foreign brands clearly superior
	Yu and Albaum (2002)	Convenience sample using quotas of 225 pre-handover group and 813 post-handover of HK to China based on age and permanent residence	Survey	Hong Kong	Negative using both 10 item and 17 item CETSCALE.

Appendix B: Demographics

	UK: n(% ^b)	US: n(%)	Total: n(%)	test ^c
n ^a	273(50.4)	269(49.6)	542(100)	–
Male	147(53.8)	127(47.2)	274(50.6)	$\chi^2_{(1)}=2.39$
Female	126(46.2)	142(52.8)	268(49.4)	p=.122
18-24 years	56(20.5)	0(0.0)	56 (10.3)	$\chi^2_{(4)}=99.27$
25-34	80(29.3)	44(16.4)	124(22.9)	p<.001
35-49	73(26.7)	27(32.3)	160(29.5)	
50-64	49(17.9)	83(30.9)	132(24.4)	
65+	15(5.5)	55(20.4)	70(12.9)	
UK/US primary citizenship	243(89.0)	261(97.0)	504(93.5)	$\chi^2_{(1)}=10.96$
Other primary citizenship	27(9.9)	8(3.0)	3(6.5)	p=.001
High school	43(15.8)	53(19.7)	96(17.7)	$\chi^2_{(2)}=4.62$
Some college	91(33.3)	68(25.3)	159(29.3)	p=.099
Completed college/post-graduate/professional degree	139(50.9)	148(55.0)	287(53.0)	
<£20,000 [<\$30,000]	107(39.2)	85(31.6)	192(36.2)	$\chi^2_{(3)}=52.21$
£20,000-39,999 [\$30,000-49,999]	108(39.6)	59(21.9)	167(31.5)	p<.001
£40,000-59,999 [\$50,000-79,999]	23(8.4)	63(23.4)	86(16.2)	
≥£60,000 [≥\$80,000]	24(8.8)	62(23.0)	86(16.2)	
Have not lived outside UK/US for significant period	171(62.6)	114(42.4)	257(47.4)	$\chi^2_{(1)}=22.30$
Lived outside UK/US (2 or more months)	102(37.4)	155(57.6)	285(52.6)	p<.001
Native-born	227(83.2)	269(100)	496(91.5)	–
Elsewhere-born	44(16.1)	0(0.0)	46(8.4)	

^aUsable surveys. Variables (%) may not total 100% due to rounding or missing demographic data (e.g., income). ^bPercent within country. ^cTwo-tailed.

Appendix B: Combined Dataset Baseline Structural Model



Notes: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Bold denotes significant coefficients, italics denotes correlations, bold italics denotes significant correlations.

Appendix D: Demographic Correlates of Consumer Centrism and the Nomological Net

Space limitations preclude a detailed examination so a subset of key findings is noted below. The weakest demographic predictor was gender: overall, while females tended to be less ethnocentric than males this finding was not significant at the country level, whereas the general finding of males being (slightly) more environmentally conscious was significant only for Americans. As was the case in Cleveland et al.'s (2009) international study, age was the strongest predictor; highly significant for all constructs in the aggregate sample. Younger consumers scored higher than their older counterparts on both materialism and global consumption orientation. Among British respondents, both COS and NEC were associated with youthfulness whereas CET was associated with being older. The CET relationship with age corroborates most previous studies that have used the full or truncated CETSCALE, (e.g., Josiassen, Assaf and Karpen 2011; Shankarmahesh 2006). Among Americans, those high in XEN tended to be younger, whereas those high in consciousness-of-kind tended to be older. Since higher education levels expose consumers to different cultural perspectives, they are less likely to adhere to local norms and customs but follow more global attitudes. Corroborating the extant literature, COS was consistently associated with higher education. Education was also associated with reduced levels of CET and materialism; but these findings achieved significance only for the UK sample. Whereas income did not figure prominently among Britons (except for the positive link to environmental concern), for Americans it played significant role regarding materialism, consciousness-of-kind, and global consumption orientation; all of which rose with higher income levels. Notably, COS was not associated with income, dispelling the notion that membership in a global elite is necessary for holding cosmopolitan views. Financial capital (e.g., for funding exotic travel) is an unnecessary means of access to cultural mobility. Virtual mobility ensues from ease of access to global media, fostering COS (Skrbis and Woodward 2007). Time spent as an expatriate was significant in six instances. Only for COS was the finding common (concomitantly positive). Among Britons, materialism and global consumption orientation rose with expatriate experience whereas for Americans it was associated with elevated XEN and reduced CET.

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